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ABSTRACT

One of a series of educational packages designed for implementation either in a workshop atmosphere or through individual study, this Hot Topic guide on reading program evaluation presents a variety of materials to assist educators in designing and implementing classroom projects and activities centering on the topic of evaluating the progress of the school reading program. The Hot Topic guide contains guidelines for workshop use; an overview of evaluating the progress of the school reading program; and four articles (from scholarly and professional journals) and ERIC documents on the topic. A 41-item annotated bibliography of items in the ERIC database on the topic is attached. (RS)

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ED 399 517

HOT TOPIC
GUIDE 17
Evaluating the Progress of the School Reading Program
REVISED EDITION

TABLE OF CONTENTS:

HELPFUL GUIDELINES FOR WORKSHOP USE
Suggestions for using this Hot Topic Guide as a professional development tool.

OVERVIEW/LECTURE
Evaluation of the School Reading Program
by Carol Nelson

ARTICLES AND ERIC DOCUMENTS
- Correlates of the School Reading Program
- Effective Schools Research and Excellence in Reading
- Monitoring Reading Instruction in the Content Areas
- Using the CIPP Model to Evaluate Reading

BIBLIOGRAPHY
A collection of selected references and abstracts obtained directly from the ERIC database.

Indiana University, Bloomington. School of Education. 1996

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CS012600

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In-Service Workshops and Seminars:
Suggestions for Using this Hot Topic Guide as a Professional Development Tool

Before the Workshop:

- Carefully review the materials presented in this Hot Topic Guide. Think about how these concepts and projects might be applied to your particular school or district.
- As particular concepts begin to stand out in your mind as being important, use the Bibliography section (found at the end of the packet) to seek out additional resources dealing specifically with those concepts.
- Look over the names of the teachers and researchers who wrote the packet articles and/or are listed in the Bibliography. Are any of the names familiar to you? Do any of them work in your geographical area? Do you have colleagues or acquaintances who are engaged in similar research and/or teaching? Perhaps you could enlist their help and expertise as you plan your workshop or seminar.
- As you begin to plan your activities, develop a mental "movie" of what you'd like to see happening in the classroom as a result of this in-service workshop or seminar. Keep this vision in mind as a guide to your planning.

During the Workshop:

- Provide your participants with a solid grasp of the important concepts that you have acquired from your reading, but don't load them down with excessive detail, such as lots of hard-to-remember names, dates or statistics. You may wish to use the Overview/Lecture section of this packet as a guide for your introductory remarks about the topic.
- Try modeling the concepts and teaching strategies related to the topic by "teaching" a minilesson for your group.
- Remember, if your teachers and colleagues ask you challenging or difficult questions about the topic, that they are not trying to discredit you or your ideas. Rather, they are trying to prepare themselves for situations that might arise as they implement these ideas in their own classrooms.
- If any of the participants are already using some of these ideas in their own teaching, encourage them to share their experiences.
- Even though your workshop participants are adults, many of the classroom management principles that you use every day with your students still apply. Workshop participants, admittedly, have a longer attention span and can sit still longer than your second-graders; but not that much longer. Don't have a workshop that is just a "sit down, shut up, and listen" session. Vary the kinds of presentations and activities you provide in your workshops. For instance, try to include at least one hands-on activity so that the participants will begin to get a feel for how they might apply the concepts that you are discussing in your workshop.
- Try to include time in the workshop for the participants to work in small groups. This time may be a good opportunity for them to formulate plans for how they might use the concepts just discussed in their own classrooms.
- Encourage teachers to go "a step further" with what they have learned in the workshop. Provide additional resources for them to continue their research into the topics discussed, such as books, journal articles, Hot Topic Guides, teaching materials, and local experts. Alert them to future workshops/conferences on related topics.

11/94

After the Workshop:

- Follow up on the work you have done. Have your workshop attendees fill out an End-of-Session Evaluation (a sample is included on the next page). Emphasize that their responses are anonymous. The participants' answers to these questions can be very helpful in planning your next workshop. After a reasonable amount of time (say a few months or a semester), contact your workshop attendees and inquire about how they have used, or haven't used, the workshop concepts in their teaching. Have any surprising results come up? Are there any unforeseen problems?
- When teachers are trying the new techniques, suggest that they invite you to observe their classes. As you discover success stories among teachers from your workshop, share them with the other attendees, particularly those who seem reluctant to give the ideas a try.
- Find out what other topics your participants would like to see covered in future workshops and seminars. There are nearly sixty Hot Topic Guides, and more are always being developed. Whatever your focus, there is probably a Hot Topic Guide that can help. An order form follows the table of contents in this packet.

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Indiana University's Distance Education program is offering new one-credit-hour Language Arts Education minicourses on these topics:

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Exploring Creative Writing with Secondary Students

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Reading across the Curriculum
Writing across the Curriculum
Organization of the Classroom

Course Requirements:
These minicourses are taught by correspondence. Minicourse reading materials consist of Hot Topic Guides and ERIC/EDINFO Press books. You will be asked to write Goal Statements and Reaction Papers for each of the assigned reading materials, and a final Synthesis paper.

I really enjoyed working at my own pace.... It was wonderful to have everything so organized...and taken care of in a manner where I really felt like I was a student, however "distant" I was...."
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Planning a Workshop Presentation
Worksheet

Major concepts you want to stress in this presentation:

1) _____

2) _____

3) _____

Are there additional resources mentioned in the Bibliography that would be worth locating? Which ones? How could you get them most easily?

_____

_____

Are there resource people available in your area whom you might consult about this topic and/or invite to participate? Who are they?

_____

_____

What would you like to see happen in participants' classrooms as a result of this workshop? Be as specific as possible.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Plans for followup to this workshop: [peer observations, sharing experiences, etc.]

_____

_____

Agenda for Workshop
Planning Sheet

Introduction/Overview:

[What would be the most effective way to present the major concepts that you wish to convey?]

_____

_____

_____

Activities that involve participants and incorporate the main concepts of this workshop:

1) _____

_____

_____

_____

2) _____

_____

_____

_____

Applications:

Encourage participants to plan a mini-lesson for their educational setting that draws on these concepts. [One possibility is to work in small groups, during the workshop, to make a plan and then share it with other participants.]

Your plan to make this happen:

_____

_____

Evaluation:

[Use the form on the next page, or one you design, to get feedback from participants about your presentation.]

End-of-Session Evaluation

Now that today's meeting is over, we would like to know how you feel and what you think about the things we did so that we can make them better. Your opinion is important to us. Please answer all questions honestly. Your answers are confidential.

1. Check (✓) to show if today's meeting was

   ❑ Not worthwhile ❑ Somewhat worthwhile ❑ Very worthwhile

2. Check (✓) to show if today's meeting was

   ❑ Not interesting ❑ Somewhat interesting ❑ Very interesting

3. Check (✓) to show if today's leader was

   ❑ Not very good ❑ Just O.K. ❑ Very good

4. Check (✓) to show if the meeting helped you get any useful ideas about how you can make positive changes in the classroom.

   ❑ Very little ❑ Some ❑ Very much

5. Check (✓) to show if today's meeting was

   ❑ Too long ❑ Too short ❑ Just about right

6. Check (✓) whether you would recommend today's meeting to a colleague.

   ❑ Yes ❑ No

7. Check (✓) to show how useful you found each of the things we did or discussed today.

   Getting information/new ideas.

   ❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

   Seeing and hearing demonstrations of teaching techniques.

   ❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

   Getting materials to read.

   ❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

Listening to other teachers tell about their own experiences.

❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

Working with colleagues in a small group to develop strategies of our own.

❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

Getting support from others in the group.

❑ Not useful ❑ Somewhat useful ❑ Very useful

8. Please write one thing that you thought was best about today:

9. Please write one thing that could have been improved today:

10. What additional information would you have liked?

11. Do you have any questions you would like to ask?

12. What additional comments would you like to make?

Thank you for completing this form.

Evaluation of the Reading Program

(All references are fully documented in the abstracts at the end of this lecture.)

by Carol Nelson

Lecture

Probably more efforts are made to evaluate reading instruction than any other curriculum area. In spite of these efforts, the evaluation of reading remains shrouded in misunderstanding and misinterpretation. Many attempts to evaluate reading programs and student reading achievement effectively have served only to confuse the issues rather than to clarify them.

Too often evaluation is set up as an afterthought; it is something that a teacher or administrator has been told to do. The evaluators thus have no ownership of the evaluation plan or the resulting data. They are evaluating to satisfy someone else. Often no one seems to know why the evaluation data are being gathered.

Many teachers and administrators confuse evaluation and testing. The terms are not synonymous. Testing, often defined more narrowly as standardized testing, is but one evaluation strategy. Because teachers do not know why they are evaluating or what they are evaluating, they have not considered how they are going to evaluate. They limit themselves to one evaluation strategy, such as testing, although there are many others available.

According to Smith et al. (1978), evaluation of the reading program should be planned by addressing systematically the questions of **why** the evaluation will be done, **what** will be evaluated, **how** the evaluation will be done, and how to do the evaluation **well**. The following discussion will focus upon each of these questions in turn.

Why Evaluate Reading?

Evaluation is defined as the "determination of the worth of something" (Worthen and Sanders, 1973). It is an attempt to determine whether some product, process, activity, or procedure is of value or is satisfactory. How well is it doing? How well <u>should</u> it be doing? Evaluation includes asking questions about the product or process, determining what is valuable about it, gathering objective and reliable information about it, and assessing its overall worth.

Evaluation is an immediate and pragmatic way of answering day-to-day questions and making decisions about reading. "Should Nancy go on to the next primer?" "Has Tommy mastered the concept of 'main idea'?" "Are teachers implementing the reading program we designed last year?" "Were our in-service workshops effective?" These are the kinds of questions that demand evaluation. They are action-oriented questions, questions that demand immediate answers if good instructional decisions are to be made.

Unfortunately, many teachers and administrators faced with the day-to-day load of correcting papers, preparing lessons, keeping records, disciplining, and instructing, consider evaluation a luxury. Their prevalent attitude is that they

do not have the time to evaluate regularly. Therefore, they will evaluate only when outside pressure demands it.

Evaluation is not a luxury; it is essential. It aids informed decision making in the classroom or school, and it contributes to the teacher's own learning. Many teachers forget that to be good teachers, they must first and foremost be good students. They must keep the spirit of personal inquiry alive, and take an active interest in their own professional actions and observations. As Schaefer (1967) notes, "Teaching, more than any other vocation, perhaps ought both to permit and to encourage the pursuit of meaning beyond any current capacity to comprehend."

Reading evaluation is effective only when you affirm a need for objective, reliable information. If you need to be more confident of what you know about the teaching of reading going on in your school, if you want to model the spirit of inquiry that you profess for your colleagues and students, and if you require better information for professional decision making, then you need evaluation.

Evaluate "What" in Reading?

Many teachers and administrators do not know where to begin. Although they sense why they should be evaluating, they are unable to translate philosophy into operation. In those circumstances, an evaluation needs assessment can play an important role in getting started.

A needs assessment is an attempt to identify whether additional information is required to support decisions currently being made about reading instruction. If there is a discrepancy between the ideal goal and the reality of the present circumstances, there is a need. Smith likens this discrepancy to a doctor who has a goal for you of a 98.6 degree temperature. He will view with alarm a temperature of 104 degrees. There is clearly a discrepancy between your ideal and your real state. You have an immediate health need, and he will suggest a curative intervention.

Similarly, you can determine if there is a discrepancy between the information required to make professional decisions and the information available. To do that, you must ask several questions:

1. What educational decisions do I make or influence?
2. What questions do I need answered in order to make those decisions?
3. Am I satisfied with the quality of the information that I am using to address questions?

Classroom teachers, principals, and reading specialists all make, help to make, or influence many important decisions about the reading program. To assess your role in influencing decisions, you might consider the following questions:

- Do I determine if individual students are ready for reading instruction in my class or school? What decisions am I likely to make? (Readiness and screening.)
- Do I determine what kind of reading instruction an individual student should receive? Do I ever change that instruction? What decisions am I likely to make? (Reading instruction.)
- Do I communicate with parents about the quality of their child's progress in reading? What am I likely to report? (Parent reporting.)
- Do I ever refer students with reading problems for special help? What decisions am I likely to make? (Diagnosis and remediation.)
- Do I ever determine the reading curriculum that I will be using? What decisions am I likely to make? (Curriculum.)
- Do I ever select instructional materials for the reading program? (Instruction.)
- Do I ever help to determine the resource level that my school will devote to the reading program? (Management.)
- What changes in the reading program am I currently helping to determine? (Improvement of instruction.)

By responding to each question you will begin to identify important decisions. Evaluation is useful to the extent that it supports or influences professional decisions. It may be a decision to continue what you have been doing, or to do nothing. By responding to each of the questions above, you will begin to identify decisions about reading that you make or influence. As you face such decisions, you usually will have to confront additional questions that clarify your options and constraints. Every teacher or administrator making decisions about a student or program must come to grips in some fashion with evaluation questions. In order to answer these questions, the teacher or administrator will make a judgment based on some kind of information. That information may come from standardized tests, classroom observation, informal testing procedures, and/or consultation with other teachers or administrators.

After the list of needs has been assembled and the information gathered, an evaluation program or blueprint should be prepared. There are many models for evaluation. One very effective model, the CIPP, is discussed in this package. It has proven useful in helping teachers and administrators better understand evaluation.

How to Evaluate Reading

Other packages in this series discuss evaluation procedures and tools. Briefly, both formal (standardized) and informal evaluative devices are available. Formal procedures generally fall into one of two categories – group-administered or individually-administered. Group-administered tests are procedures such as survey reading tests, diagnostic reading tests, achievement tests, and intelligence tests. Individually-administered procedures include oral reading tests, diagnostic reading tests, auditory discrimination tests, auditory and visual screening tests, and intelligence tests. Some of these may be administered by the teacher; others are to be administered only by those with special training.

Informal diagnostic procedures are designed to help the classroom teacher gain the best specific information about each student in his/her class. Some of these procedures are attitude and interest surveys, observation with accompanying anecdotal records, the Informal Reading Inventory (IRI), word recognition inventories, criterion-referenced and objective-referenced tests, cloze procedure and Group Reading Inventory.

The overwhelming consensus of researchers is that no one device should be used alone. Formal diagnosis should be used to supplement informal procedures. Informal procedures allow more latitude in the testing situation; they are not bound by the standardization procedures required of formal tests.

How to Evaluate Well

Most of the articles included in this package (Guzzetti and Marzano and Silvern) discuss what current research tells administrators effective teaching should look like in the classroom. Just as there are many ways to evaluate a student's reading, there are many ways to evaluate a teacher's reading instruction. Just as a teacher should never determine a student's reading achievement by one test, neither should that teacher be judged by one criterion. We tell teachers that observation is a powerful evaluative tool. Administrators also need to be observing in the classroom to see what kinds of teaching strategies are being used. If teachers and administrators keep current with research in the reading field, they will know that methods used ten or twenty years ago may not be what are best today. Just as the basal reading series have had major changes in content and methods, so too must everyday classroom practices change.

For example, some current research shows that teachers who extend their basal reading series with a diverse array of materials, including real children's literature, have a higher rate of success. All classrooms must have a wide selection of reading materials available for students. Students should be able to choose whether or not they want to read, and should be given time during the school day to read books of their choice.

Likewise, teachers at all levels should read aloud regularly to their students. Administrators should be aware that this is a very effective tool. They should not act like the principal who, walking into a classroom where the teacher was reading to her third graders, said, "Oh. I'll come back when you are teaching."

The evaluation of reading for both the student and the program is a prominent ingredient in maintaining a quality reading program. Although educational evaluation is still a young science, it is having a profound effect on reading and reading instruction.

Intense debates are currently raging within the reading research community on the need for reading evaluation, strategies for reading evaluation, and the control of quality in reading evaluation. Missing to date is the widespread involvement of teachers and administrators in these debates. Because preparation in evaluation has not been part of the practitioner's

training, he or she is burdened with a negative attitude, insufficient skills, or both. Evaluation of reading efforts is the business of all of us.

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Correlates of effective reading instruction

Research on school effectiveness has identified particular process and content characteristics associated with gains in reading achievement. This article examines the research literature and the application of the research findings.

Barbara J. Guzzetti
Robert J. Marzano

In 1966, Coleman et al. reported an extensive investigation on the effects of school input measures (facilities and curriculum) upon output measures (achievement), stating that schools' resources or programs accounted for little variation in achievement. Laypersons and educators interpreted these findings as evidence that schools do not make a difference in student performance. However, studies in the 1970s and 1980s examined other factors associated with high and low academic performance, and distinct process and content characteristics have been found in successful or improving schools and programs. In short, we are now approaching an operational definition of "effective schooling."

In this article we will summarize the findings from school effectiveness research (most of it at the elementary school level), with emphasis on studies that investigated reading instruction, and then attempt to translate those findings into classroom applications.

Research tells us

The research findings on effective instructional practices can be organized into two broad areas: teacher beliefs and teacher practices.

Teacher beliefs. One of the most important findings about school effectiveness is that teacher beliefs and perceptions about themselves, students, and teaching in general are as important as their instructional practices. Three areas or "constructs" appear to be strongly related to student achievement.

1. High expectations. Effective

teachers believed all of their students could succeed. Good (1981) hypothesized that teachers transmit their expectations for mastery or failure of basic objectives to their students, who internalize them and in time live up to them.

Effective teachers maintained and communicated high expectations despite variations in students' socioeconomic status, motivation, or background (Glenn and McLean, 1981; Armor et al., 1976). In effective schools, high expectations were commonly viewed as the cause for increased motivation for both teachers and students (Weber, 1971). Effective teachers apparently increased their expectations for student performance during the course of the academic year (Brookover and Lezotte, 1979). Teachers in improving schools had a strong sense of their own personal efficacy.

2. Belief in the basics. Teachers in effective schools believed in emphasizing basic skills (Brookover and Lezotte, 1979; Weber, 1971), specifically basic reading objectives. They operated from a goal-oriented perspective. They recognized the importance of reading and assumed responsibility for reading instruction. Reading was the first concern of teachers in the primary grades (Weber, 1971).

3. Dissatisfaction with status quo. Teachers in improving schools were less satisfied with the status quo than were teachers in declining schools (Brookover and Lezotte, 1979), and believed that levels of attainment could be improved. They were more likely to be tense and dissatisfied with existing conditions than complacent. This tension translated into constructive behavior as teachers alleviated dissatisfaction by implementing new programs or procedures.

Teacher practices. In addition to the findings on teacher beliefs, a growing body of literature identifies effective classroom practices, grouped in two broad areas.

1. Instructional practices. Teachers in effective schools set clearly stated and specific goals for themselves and for their students (Glenn and McLean, 1981; Venesky and Winfield, 1979). They set objectives each year and kept their focus on them. One goal was to increase time spent on content reading (Venesky and Winfield, 1979). The amount of time spent on reading activities significantly affected student reading gain, at both the secondary (Stallings, 1980) and elementary levels (Kean et al., 1979). Teachers who believed in basic skills instruction allocated more time for reading.

Effective instruction was characterized by a diagnostic-prescriptive approach, with careful monitoring of student progress (Armor et al., 1976; California State Department of Education, 1980; Weber, 1971). Diagnosis was continuous, using both formal and informal measures. Teachers paid close, frequent attention to how each child responded to instruction, and adapted or supplemented materials to meet individual needs. Teachers were not restricted to any one program; the more they modified the reading program, the greater was the increase in students' reading achievement (Armor et al., 1976). Effective teachers drew on a range of materials and techniques to "individualize" by monitoring progress and modifying assignments accordingly.

Direct instruction was important—the effective teachers relied on direct interaction between teacher and students rather than on materials, media, or learning stations (these were used to reinforce skills). These teachers emphasized higher order skills and comprehension, assessing students' abilities to apply new skills and concepts in various contexts (California State Department of Education, 1980; Levine and Stark, 1982).

Effective instruction also showed distinct patterns of questions and feedback. Teachers gave immediate feedback, probed for answers when students were unsure, corrected mistakes, and engaged in substantive conversation about the error (California State Department of Education, 1980; Stallings et al., 1978; Stallings, Needles, and Dayrook, 1979; Westbrook, 1982). In addition, Stallings (1982) found the following types of interactive behavior crucial: discussion, review, oral discussion for new work, and corrective feedback. Students who entered classes with low pretest scores but made high gains in reading had teachers who "tended to quiz students more frequently, have students read aloud, work with small groups, and stay involved with students" (p. 72).

2. Organizational practices. Effective teachers varied the way they grouped the class. Pupils taught in both small group and whole class combinations achieved better than those taught in a single type of group (Kean et al., 1979). Effective secondary teachers interacted more with the class as a whole (at least 50% of their time) (Stallings, 1982). At the elementary level, effective teachers worked more often with small groups (California State Department of Education, 1980).

Collaborative planning and interchange were characteristic of effective teachers. They consulted informally with each other about the reading program, often on a regular basis, and of their own initiative (Armor et al., 1976). Continual emphasis on building-level staff development was present in effective schools (Levine and Stark, 1982). Teachers attended grade-level staff development sessions conducted by the reading coordinator, addressing topics they themselves raised (Armor et al., 1976). Effective principals shared planning and decision-making with teachers, often giving them time to plan together during the school day (Glenn and McLean, 1981).

Teachers in effective schools used instructional resources (time, personnel, materials) efficiently (Venesky and Winfield, 1979). This was exemplified by remedial reading instruction in the classroom at times when regular reading instruction was not in progress (consistent with Glass and Smith's analysis, 1977, that "pull out" procedures have no clear academic or social benefits and may be detrimental to students' progress).

Application

Before discussing the application of the research findings, we should offer a note of warning. The suggestions below should be considered cautiously for several reasons.

First, there is always a danger in taking research findings out of context; there is no way to discuss adequately the generalizability of results, limitations of the designs, or flaws in methodology in a review such as this. In addition, most of these studies were conducted at the elementary level and we do not know whether these findings are applicable at the secondary level.

Second, there is no guarantee that implementation of any findings (on an individual, classroom or building-wide basis) will produce achievement gains. We cannot say that these factors caused high achievement scores, only that they appeared along with reading improvement.

Thus, the comments below should be taken only as suggestions. Teachers may choose to incorporate these practices and determine their effects in their own situations. Our six suggestions incorporate many of the findings discussed above.

1. Expect reading achievement gains from all students and communicate that expectation. At the begin-

ning of the year, set reading performance goals with each student. Discuss with them how important it is to aim high. Avoid the following negative behaviors:

- Don't seat slow students far from yourself or in a group, as this makes it harder to monitor them.
- Don't pay less attention to lows in academic situations (smiling less often or maintaining less eye contact).
- Don't call on lows less often to answer classroom questions or make public demonstrations.
- Don't wait less time for lows to answer questions.
- Don't abandon lows in failure situations; instead ask follow-up questions.
- Don't criticize lows more frequently than highs for incorrect public responses.
- Don't praise lows less frequently than highs after successful public responses.
- Don't praise lows more frequently than highs for marginal or inadequate public responses.
- Don't give low-achieving students less accurate and less detailed feedback than highs.
- Don't give lows less frequent feedback than highs.
- Don't demand less work and effort from lows than from highs.
- Don't interrupt the performance of low achievers more frequently than that of high achievers.

2. Keep an open mind to ways of improving instruction in your classroom. Be receptive to new ideas and strategies. Invite suggestions from other teachers; visit their classrooms; share techniques that work; belong to your professional organization; read journals relevant to your field.

3. Make sure that the more "global" reading skills are reinforced within reading instruction. Such skills as sounding and blending and structural analysis should not be taught to the exclusion or deemphasis of more comprehensive skills (summarizing, inferring, applying, evaluating, and extrapolating).

4. Maintain a complex level of interaction with students when asking questions. Try to avoid the pattern of asking a question, receiving an answer, and asking another question. Instead, help students explore the logic behind an answer. (For example, Why is that a good answer? What evidence is there for its validity?) This process has been called instructional "scaffolding"—using one question to introduce another—gradually increasing the complexity of the logic framework within which the question must be answered.

5. Be flexible and efficient in your instructional and organizational techniques. Use a variety of grouping strategies. Maintain a balance among large group, small group and individualized instruction. Keep up a lively instructional pace. Modify the curriculum to meet individual needs. Use the resources available to you (workbooks, teacher aides, films). Waste little time in activities that are not directly related to instruction.

6. Use a diagnostic-prescriptive model. Be aware of the reading process. This means be a student of the reading process. Know how it works. Look for related strengths and weaknesses in your students. Try to identify the source of a reading problem. Is it due to lack of background experience or poor decoding skills? Is it due to not understanding what reading is?

Guzzetti is research associate at the Mid-continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Aurora, Colorado, where Marzano is Director of Research.

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REVIEWS OF RESEARCH

STEVEN B. SILVERN

At least a generation of reading specialists have advocated incorporating children's literature into the reading program. This recommendation, however, has not achieved widespread acceptance. Rather, basals have adapted children's literature for the basal program. This is not the same as incorporating literature into the program. The following review takes a unique approach in suggesting the use of children's literature. Not only is it a valid suggestion, but the weight of efffective schooling research supports the use of children's literature to teach reading.—S.B.S.

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS RESEARCH AND EXCELLENCE IN READING
A Rationale for Children's Literature in the Curriculum

Barbara A. Lehman and Patricia R. Crook

Effective schools research of the last decade has provided us with a solid body of knowledge about teaching. But, have we paused to apply this knowledge to the classroom? The purpose of this article is to examine some of these findings as they affect the reading program. Both effective schools research and reading research support the view that: a) more school time should be devoted to reading literature that captures and feeds the imagination and b) more than basal materials is necessary for effective instruction.

The first part of this review explains why children's literature enhances effectiveness. The second part describes effective use of children's books. Both parts present effective schools research constructs, followed by suggestions for using children's literature.

Improving Teacher Effectiveness with Children's Literature

• *Children will learn better if they understand what they are to learn and why* (Baumann, 1984). By explicitly stating the objectives and reasons for a lesson and asking appropriate questions to check for comprehension, teachers help fulfill this construct. (More about questioning will be detailed later in this article.) It is not enough, however, to *tell* students what the ends should be. The ultimate goal for reading instruction is the ability to use reading as a tool for learning and pleasure; children's books consistently convey that message. Children understand readily the importance of reading when they read personally meaningful stories and books—when they see themselves, their families and friends in those books. While most basal readers do not contain the range of stories necessary to accomplish this purpose, various genres of children's literature provide books from which many purposeful instructional activities for children can be designed. Indeed, children prefer the varied story structures of children's books, which are not found in even the best literature-based basals (Morrow, 1982). Children also prefer listening to heritage literature (defined as folk tales, epics, myths, fables and verse) over either contemporary basal readers or the McGuffey readers of a century ago (Cook & White, 1977).

• *Children will learn what they are taught* (Berliner, 1984; Duffy, 1982). Emphasis in too many reading programs is on mechanical procedures and recitation, with most reading instruction producing skillful decoders, not actual users of reading (Duffy, 1982). Less-skilled readers

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do not realize that getting meaning is the goal of reading; rather, they believe that the task simply is decoding (Paris, Oka & DeBritto, 1983). Additionally, decoding is reinforced because there is virtually no comprehension instruction in upper elementary classrooms (Durkin, 1978-1979). If we want children to read with understanding, then it follows that reading instruction should include more than mere decoding and drill. Children's literature is a vehicle for focusing on comprehension, not mechanical accuracy.

• *Teacher expectations affect students' level of performance* (Berliner, 1984; Holloman & Gaito, 1983; Baumann, 1984). Students tend to learn as their teachers expect. Typically, teachers treat children differently based on expectations for performance (Good & Brophy, 1984). Children labeled with low expectation are 1) asked to do less work; 2) called on less often; and 3) asked simple, basic questions. Yet, when teachers communicate high expectations by giving students more chances to participate in meaningful discussions, students contribute more ideas and opinions.

Teachers may systematically give children real stories by reading to them; allowing them time to read each day; and providing follow-up activities such as discussion, dramatization, illustration and written response. These activities communicate to children that their best effort is needed in reading, that reading is valued as an activity that brings pleasure as well as understanding and insight.

• *Using appropriate and varied materials helps to ensure a high rate of success and promotes achievement* (Guzzetti & Marzano, 1984). Reading programs in effective schools employed "a diverse array of materials (including real literature) and paid little attention to what one principal described as 'Dick and Jane stuff'" (Stedman, 1987, pp. 219-220). Apparently, teachers in effective schools have discovered that, among the 40,000 children's books in print, there is an ample variety appropriate to the needs of every reader. Also, teaching techniques such as shared book experiences capitalize on self-selection of favorite books to ensure the appropriateness of materials (Holdaway, 1982). Repeated experiences with shared books provide a high rate of reading success.

Unlike many basal reading series, through literature children are exposed to written language at its best and in its many forms (ranging from historical fiction and biography to poetry and folklore). For example, six primary basal series were analyzed for story structures; 87% of the stories fell into three categories: confrontation with a problem, episodic and plotless. Significantly more stories fell into the plotless category for those series which heavily emphasized decoding skills (Morrow, 1982). If exposure to story structure facilitates prediction and comprehension, then predictable, natural-language children's books are more appropriate than plotless, decoding-oriented basal selections (Tompkins & Webeler, 1983).

• *Effective teachers do not rely on materials to teach or to provide a formula to be followed unquestioningly* (Guzzetti & Marzano, 1984; Duffy, 1982; Duffy & Roehler, 1986). Effective teachers make their own instructional decisions and ac-

Effective teachers do not rely on materials to teach or to provide a formula to be followed unquestioningly.

tively involve themselves in direct instruction. Reading comprehension is endangered when teachers perceive that commercial reading materials possess instructional powers, and when instruction becomes so "textbook/workbook bound" that it is reduced to the "monitoring of pupils through commercial materials" (Duffy, 1982, p. 362). Five basal reader series were examined to see if they lacked comprehension instruction commonly found in practice. It was found that teachers' manuals do not include ideas for explaining comprehension skills (Durkin, 1981). Apparently, basal publishers assume additional practice and assessment result in learning. Overall, evaluation rather than explanation was emphasized heavily in these basal series.

Success in reading depends on the opportunity to read.

On the other hand, teachers who use children's books are not likely to fall into the trap of thinking that materials teach. Without a teacher's manual and workbook, teachers must take more responsibility for reading instruction. Comprehension strategies—such as using context and prior knowledge, making and confirming predictions, questioning, drawing inferences, connecting ideas while reading stories and books—must be taught explicitly and modeled by the teacher. The act of reading, itself, provides natural, meaningful practice with these techniques.

• *Effective teachers allocate classroom time judiciously* (Berliner, 1984; Baumann, 1984). Children's literature can be an important ally in maximizing academic learning time in the reading program. First, less time is wasted if children have something to read when other assignments are completed or while waiting through transitions in the daily schedule. Second, time is spent more wisely by having children actually read and respond to books (both orally and in writing) rather than complete dittoed worksheets and workbook pages (Department of Education, 1986). Success in reading depends on the opportunity to read. Researchers have discovered that poor readers not only read fewer words in context and are subjected to more interruptions (Allington, 1977), but also get less time for reading (Duffy, 1982). Children need the chance to read and re-read orally (sometimes in unison) and to read silently for sustained periods of time (Allington, 1977).

Using Children's Books Effectively in the Classroom

• *A reading program that is literature-based should not neglect basic skills.* When reading skills, such as word recognition and comprehension strategies, are approached as problem-solving for gaining meaning, mastery of those skills can be "a rich source of pleasure" (Holdaway, 1982, p. 293). Thus, if children learn to read as they learn to walk and talk, and develop skills in the meaningful context of reading children's books, the experience can be richly satisfying and intrinsically rewarding. Not only are trade books an excellent means for teaching comprehension, they also enhance children's word recognition. Pattern books, which contain repetitive structures, "enable readers to predict the exact word or line or espisode" (Bridge, Winograd & Haley, 1983, p. 884). Moreover, when used to teach beginning sight words they are more effective than basal pre-primers, which often lack plot or meaningful context. This supports the contention that good readers use context clues more often than phonics when deciphering unknown words (Duffy, 1982).

Using children's literature, however, does not imply absence of direction by the teacher. Undirected reading in children's books may not improve reading ability. While significant gains in achievement were found as a result of uninter-

rupted sustained silent reading [USSR] (Langford & Allen, 1983), other researchers (Manning & Manning, 1984; Schaudt, 1983) found less positive results for USSR. Manning and Manning showed that a peer interaction model (which included discussion, oral reading and book sharing) produced significant gains over USSR, individual teacher-student conferences and no organized method at all. In order to make optimum progress, most children need direct, explicit instruction (Duffy & Roehler, 1986), as well as monitoring and continuous feedback from teachers who are knowledgeable about the reading process and sensitive to the students' needs. Reading teachers should know that "the greater the number of substantive interactions that take place, the more likely it is that students will achieve academically" (Berliner, 1984, p. 63).

• *"Teachers who ask more higher-order questions have students who achieve considerably more"* (Berliner, 1984, p. 64). In discussions following readings teachers should ask questions that require inference, analysis and synthesis from children. Meanings and ideas should be highlighted for students to seek in other readings. Factual-level questions will not promote the greatest development in comprehension, and teachers need not assess literal understanding; higher-level questions can be answered only if one already has a solid grasp of the facts. Deeper understandings result if we ask questions that demand reflection—questions that require predictions about the outcome or next episode of a story, make comparisons between the themes of two books or analyze the motivations of characters. In addition, students provide better quality answers if teachers allow more wait-time for a response (Berliner, 1984). After all, higher-level questions usually require more time for thinking.

• *Teachers who effectively use children's literature as the content of their reading programs need to know and love children's books.* Knowledge about reading approaches is not enough; we must get at the very substance of reading—which is, in fact, literature. "Too much concentration on general methodology has trivialized our profession" (Honig, 1985, p. 681). Rather, good teachers know the content of their subjects and "know how to make the material come alive" (p. 681). This means that teachers of reading must remain current with children's books and trends in the field of children's literature.

Summary

Reliance on basal readers too often is a way of life in our educational system. In many classrooms it is *the* way of life. The Educational Products Information Exchange found that 90% of elementary teachers use commercial materials 90% of the time in reading instruction (cited in Shannon, 1983). But reading should be far more than the completion of a set of materials or even the mastery of basic skills. If we set our sights no higher than the typical basal program, we likely will not nurture lifelong readers. Within children's books lies the potential to change reading instruction from mere skill acquisition to discovery, learning, insight and knowledge. Including children's books in the curriculum can increase teacher effectiveness, but demands more than following an instructional recipe. If we teach so that children become "hooked on books," they will become more than simply adequate in literacy; they may even achieve excellence.

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Monitoring reading instruction in the content areas

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To function well, schoolwide reading programs must involve the classroom teacher (Anders, 1981; Narang, 1980; Shannon, 1978). In addition to participating in the developmental reading program, monitoring the progress of pupils of all ability levels, diagnosing and prescribing for their reading needs, the teacher must also recognize how reading instruction functions in subject area classes. The success of any schoolwide effort to assure reading competence depends on teachers using and developing reading skills in their content area instruction (Palmer, 1978) since it is the content area classroom, not the reading lab, where the majority of students as readers interact with teachers (Roe, Stoodt, and Burns, 1983).

Although we often measure the success of our reading programs with standardized tests (Negley et al., 1980), this same test may not be adequate to measure the success of reading in all subject areas. We need a measure of how well we teach reading in the content program.

A monitoring scale

This article proposes an instrument that should help teachers and administrators monitor instructional reading practices and abilities in the content area classroom. The scale included here has been developed over several years. Its construct validity is based on observations of inservice educator practices; lists and suggestions from secondary reading education texts (Burmeister, 1983; Cheek and Cheek, 1983; Herber, 1970; Roe, Stoodt and Burns, 1983; Smith and Elliott, 1979);

consultant work with several state departments of public instruction in the U.S. (Memory, 1982); years of training preservice teachers; results from hundreds of workshops on reading in the content areas done with teachers, aides, and administrators; and classroom teaching in the secondary school.

The scale has been validated in its use with successful programs for teaching students to read in the content areas. The instructional practices cited are characteristic of those used by effective teachers and recommended by researchers.

Instructions for the scale's administration are straightforward: Teachers rank their ability and usage of various reading related behaviors from 1 to 10. The higher the ranking, the more ability the teacher has in a given area or the more frequent the use of a particular practice. To assure the accurate self-report data which is essential, teacher anonymity should be maintained.

The first step in the self-monitoring or observation of reading practices in the content area classroom is to identify desirable teaching behaviors. This scale divides these behaviors into five categories.

1. Sensitivity to the readability of materials.
2. Preparation for reading.
3. The use of reading in content areas.
4. Outside reading (supplementary reading).
5. Knowledge of principles of reading in the content areas.

Subcategories are shown in the inventory.

The scale can be used to identify a list of effective classroom practices, or to rate whether or not the practices are acutally being used. A rating scale for *usage* and *ability* for each practice is included in the inventory checklist shown in Figure 1.

Evaluation of the checklist and grid

To examine a particular teacher's behaviors, information from the checklist must be entered onto the grid (Figure 2). Each behavior on the checklist has two coordinates (numbers assigned on the 1-10 scale), one for *usage* and one for *ability* to perform. The *usage* score for a behavior is plotted on the X coordinate, and the *ability* score on the Y coordinate. The intersection of the two coordinates is then plotted as described in the following examples.

First Example:

Behavior 2a reads: "States specific purposes for reading." Imagine that you are a teacher and do this behavior rather frequently (rank = 8). You also feel that you do it with a good measure of ability but could do it better (rank = 7). Your coordinates then become (8, 7) and are plotted on the grid at the point marked 2a (in quadrant II of the grid).

Second Example:

Behavior 3c reads: "Asks questions that require thinking on the levels of evaluation, synthesis, application, and creative awareness." Imagine that you rarely perform this type of activity (rank = 2), and you feel that you have no idea how to do so (rank = 1). Your coordinates (2, 1) are plotted on the grid at the point marked 3c (in quadrant IV).

When each instructional practice has received a set of coordinates and been plotted on the grid, a natural clustering will emerge which indicates behavioral tendencies relative to teaching reading in the content area.

Figure 3 shows how to analyze a teacher's instructional reading practices according to the clusters appearing on the grid.

The checklist and grid can be filled

Instructional practices checklist for reading in the content areas

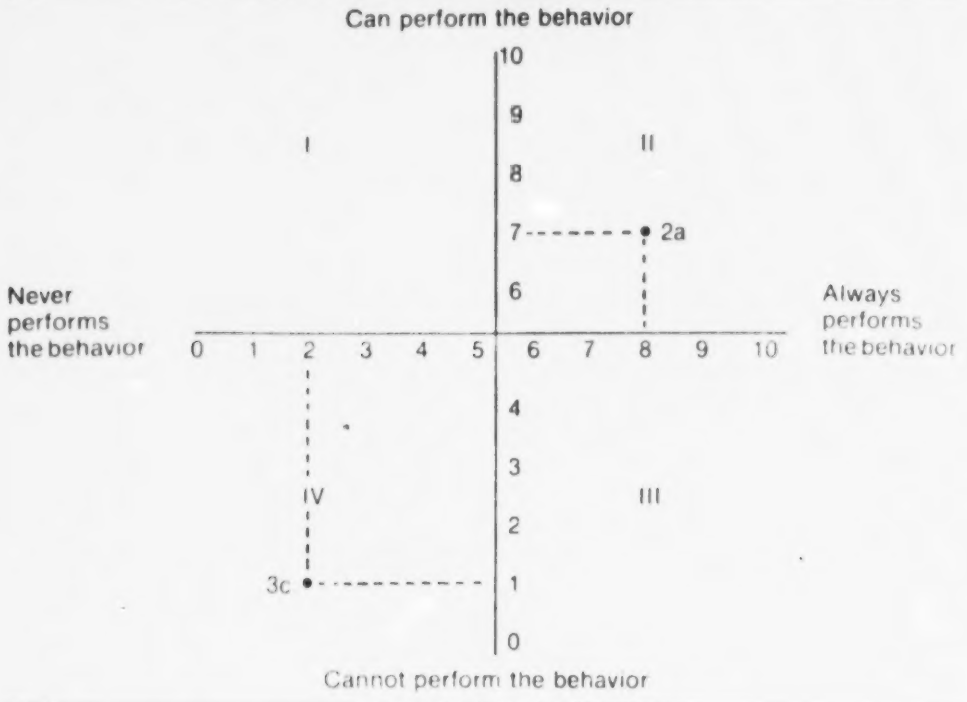
This instrument is intended to determine your *ability* to use and your *actual usage* of principles and practices related to reading. Read each behavior statement and then mark the two accompanying scales (1-10). The *Usage scale* measures how frequently you use the practice. The *Ability scale* measures how comfortable or competent you feel in using the practice.

Mark the scale according to your frequency of use and perceived ability for each practice.

	Usage scale			Ability scale		
	Never	Sometimes	Always	Cannot do it	Some ability	Can do it very well
1. In assessing the appropriateness of particular reading materials for a grade level, the teacher investigates the reading level of the student and the reading level of the text.						
a. Uses readability formulas	0	5	10	0	5	10
b. Uses a form to analyze textbook appropriateness	0	5	10	0	5	10
c. Uses informal measures to assess students' reading levels	0	5	10	0	5	10
d. Has alternative materials on curricular topics, on all reading levels, available for student use	0	5	10	0	5	10
e. Encourages reading as a valuable method of information gathering	0	5	10	0	5	10
2. In preparing students for a content area reading assignment, the teacher is aware of student reading levels and the match (or mismatch) with text reading levels.						
a. States specific purposes for reading	0	5	10	0	5	10
b. Teaches context or structure clues to aid in reading difficult vocabulary	0	5	10	0	5	10
c. Provides necessary background, proper motivation, and related information for all reading assignments	0	5	10	0	5	10
d. Provides specific reading/study strategies for reading different materials in different content areas	0	5	10	0	5	10
e. Encourages continual questioning on all levels of comprehension for students during reading	0	5	10	0	5	10
f. Prepares efficient study guides, sets of questions, or structured overviews for reading assignments	0	5	10	0	5	10

	Usage scale			Ability scale		
	Never	Sometimes	Always	Cannot do it	Some ability	Can do it very well
3. In the discussion of reading assignments, the teacher provides opportunity for all levels of information to be examined.						
a. Asks questions that involve factual recall	0	5	10	0	5	10
b. Asks questions that involve interpretation of information	0	5	10	0	5	10
c. Asks questions that require thinking on the levels of evaluation, synthesis, application, creative awareness	0	5	10	0	5	10
d. Questions socratically (inductively, gradually arriving at generalizations)	0	5	10	0	5	10
e. Assures that students on all reading levels have basic understandings needed for further learning	0	5	10	0	5	10
4. In encouraging leisure time reading and related outside reading, the teacher will model this behavior.						
a. Provides reading opportunities for students (i.e., allows time, provides resources, develops related bulletin boards)	0	5	10	0	5	10
b. Reads extensively in areas of interest and shares experiences with students	0	5	10	0	5	10
5. In discussion of reading in the content areas, the teacher articulates essential principles of this type of instruction.						
a. Distinguishes remedial reading from resource reading in content areas	0	5	10	0	5	10
b. Articulates a schoolwide responsibility for using reading in all content areas	0	5	10	0	5	10
c. Identifies reading/study skill priorities for a given content area	0	5	10	0	5	10
d. Accepts responsibility for teaching the reading/study skills that are needed for a given content area	0	5	10	0	5	10
e. Accepts responsibility to improve all students' reading ability	0	5	10	0	5	10
f. Identifies the related roles of reading specialists and content area teachers	0	5	10	0	5	10
g. Identifies resources that provide information on instructional practices related to the use of reading in the content areas	0	5	10	0	5	10

Figure 2
Reading behavior grid for teaching reading in the content areas



in and analyzed by individual teachers in private or group sessions. Teachers can be challenged by the self-analysis and urged to react accordingly. Action on the results of the grid analysis becomes the true measure of the worth of this entire exercise in monitoring.

Follow up

After this analysis, teachers should have a general picture of themselves relative to the issue of reading in the content areas. Inservice activities on reading in the content areas should focus on shifting abilities and instructional practices into quadrant II, an ideal situation in which everyone *can* and *does*! Some specific suggestions for various cluster patterns follow.

Teachers who cluster in quadrant I might first examine themselves as professionals and decide about their future in the classroom. A teacher who has abilities yet omits the targeted behaviors has more concerns than those faced in the typical staff inservice program. These teachers need to meet and discuss their instructional practices and determine if *any* of the practices on the inventory speaks to the reading needs of their students. These teachers need to decide whether or not they will be concerned about the needs of content readers.

Teachers who have clusters of points in quadrant II, as identified by themselves or by administrators, should be the leaders of the inservice planning and implementation, forming the core of the schoolwide reading committee. Each can present content teaching ideas to the entire staff or to departments.

Clustering in quadrant III means a problem with self-perception, or

Figure 3
Reading behavior grid: Quadrant analysis

If the heaviest cluster of points is in this quadrant . . .	The instructional behavior with regard to reading in the content area can best be identified with. . .
I	a person who can give reading instruction effectively, but will not—is lazy, burnt out, or in need of motivation
II	a person who can and does use the techniques for teaching reading in the content area classroom—can be tapped for instructional leadership
III	a person who uses the instructional practices in the content areas but cannot do it well—is either incompetent or misjudges his/her own abilities and practices
IV	a person who never uses the techniques—needs inservice training in practices and attitudes relative to reading in the content area

perhaps in following directions on the grid. It is unlikely that teachers would practice behaviors in which they are admittedly not proficient. However, if this is the case, direct supervision is mandated.

Teachers who fall into quadrant IV score low on both usage and knowledge. Special effort should be made to involve them early in inservice planning sessions to expose them to the practices listed. Once they see what reading in the content areas means, they will probably adopt its philosophy and practices.

Teachers should be encouraged to examine their grids and suggest instructional methods to each other. Since a valid scale of practices has been used, movement to high ratings on the ability and usage scales should be encouraged through focussed inservice on the problem cluster areas.

Master teacher (quadrant II) or peer teacher demonstrations should be encouraged. An advantage of self-rating is that teachers can identify their own strengths, to be shared, and their weaknesses, to be strengthened. The compilation of several teacher grids can be used as a needs assessment device to begin staff development programs.

Though there are limitations in the current grid method, it is an attempt to initiate analysis of reading related instructional practices in the content areas. The behavior scale and grid need further examination by content area specialists. Greater dialogue between the content-oriented teachers and process-oriented reading specialists will be a service to researchers, practitioners, and students.

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"Dear Mom and Dad...."

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Using the CIPP model to evaluate reading instruction

Tom Nicholson

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■ How does the teacher find out whether instruction has worked? This scary question of accountability often gets swept aside in the rush to do something about the very real problems which many children have with reading.

In fact, it has been argued that teachers do not really care whether their instruction works. Instead, they see accountability as simply doing something rather than nothing. According to Wildavsky (1979, p. 319), "effort has been used as an index of accomplishment."

But this is surely not enough, given the current pressure of today's world, where teachers are being asked to explain and justify their instructional programmes. As a recent news article put it (*NZ Herald*, 1987, p. 6): "A more effective monitoring of the performance of individual schools looks to be high on the government's agenda in its quest for better results...."

Yet quite apart from the need for accountability at the government level, the reality is that teachers must also be able to explain the reasoning behind their reading instruction programmes, and the effects of that instruction. And they must be able to communicate to a number of different audiences, including students, parents, their colleagues, and the principal.

This is why it is important to *evaluate* the effects of instruction. To do so, however, means finding out what is actually happening in the classroom.

identifying bottlenecks, taking appropriate action, deciding whether the action worked, and deciding whether or not to change it.

Teachers do worry about evaluation

In my experience, teachers are more than worried about whether or not their instruction is working. When they reflect on what the research says about reading problems, a sense of concern and frustration usually appears. For example, here are some concerns expressed by high school teachers (Nicholson, 1988b):

> *Problem: Switched-off readers*
> "The thing that has struck me is that kids aren't reading and understanding. I've got a class where they don't enjoy reading. They'll go through school not understanding their texts because they won't ever read. These are the things that worry me. It's really hard."
>
> *Problem: Spoonfeeding*
> "Reading is a real problem. I set them a chapter of work to read but I know that half of them aren't going to do it, so I write a summary afterwards. And, of course, they know I'm going to do the summary, so they don't read it. I know it's spoonfeeding, but in my subject you just can't have them coming out with the wrong information."
>
> *Problem: Feeling "out of touch"*
> "You know, just about the only communication I have with these kids is in writing. I don't communicate with them verbally at all. I just don't get a chance to ask, 'Why did you get that wrong? What was going through your mind?' "
>
> *Problem: Students who can't even decode*
> "I've got a class this year where half the kids can't even pronounce the words. They make all sorts of wrong guesses, and panic. It's hard to know where to start when they're at that level."
>
> *Problem: Copying and plagiarism*
> "Picking out the main points, summarising skills, these are hard to teach. I'm ashamed to admit how badly some of the kids do it. Most kids just copy, and usually copy the wrong bits."

The CIPP model

An approach to instructional evaluation, which I have found useful, is the CIPP model (pronounced "sip"). The basic idea behind CIPP, which stands for Context, Input, Process, Product, is that evaluation is designed not so much to prove that you are right, as to improve on what you are already doing (Stufflebeam, 1983, p. 118): "It is a move against the view that evaluations should be 'witchhunts' or only instruments of accountability. Instead, it sees evaluation as a tool by which to help make programs work better for the people they are intended to serve."

In other words evaluation is seen as something that teachers do in order to make their reading programmes work better for the students they are supposed to help. In this respect, CIPP is a useful model for the classroom situation. Here is how it can work for you (see also Chart 1 for the framework of these four types of evaluation used in the CIPP model).

Step 1 in the CIPP strategy is to conduct a context evaluation, to find out the needs of the students. This can include looking at the work they have been doing and their scores on various school tests. But such information can be supplemented with classroom interviews, using nondirective questioning (Nicholson, 1985).

Step 2 is to get input about the kinds of instructional action needed. Ideas for action may come from colleagues in your own and other schools, and from further reading.

Step 3 is to carry out a process evaluation, where the ideas decided on at the input stage are trialed, monitored,

dents, they maintain, are rewarded in the classroom for docility, neatness and respect for authority — skills allegedly demanded for manual occupations....Middle class students, they argue, learn intellectual problem solving, motivation, flexibility, and independence which enables them to work in professional and managerial positions."

According to this perspective, working class girls accept what they are told to do in their work, and they copy what is given. Yet middle class girls learn to work out their own problems, and make their own decisions about how to organise their lesson content.

If this view is correct, then Anne is learning *not* to have power — as the theorists put it. She will leave school, lacking confidence in her own ideas, willing to accept a job that is routine and mechanical, where other people make the decisions.

This interpretation of Anne's plight may not be wholly correct. But it certainly points out the importance of changing Anne's strategies so that she will take control of her own learning.

How can this be done? The next important input step is to read the practical literature, and locate some teaching ideas that may get Anne away from the strategy of copying. For example, the "reading log" idea (McKeachie, 1986, p. 128) can help her to introduce new frameworks to her own writing. Chart 2 shows a log entry, written in response to a magazine article.

A final input technique is to consult with other teachers. They may have further ideas for encouraging Anne to take charge of her own work in class.

Evaluate your process (Step 3). The reading log may not work. This is why the process stage is needed. A potential problem is that Anne is already keeping her own "rough copy book" and it may be impossible to break her out of the copying habit. But on the positive side, at least she is doing something in the way of writing and is comfortable with the demands of writing notes on a regular basis.

So, be very specific with her about how the reading log is to be carried out. For example:

(1) No verbatim copying.
(2) Do your own thinking while you are reading.
(3) No note taking while reading.
(4) Write down your *own* thoughts in the logbook after you have finished reading.
(5) Read widely — do not just use material assigned in class.

Anne's logbook should be checked regularly. Comment on whether she is meeting the rules for the reading log. In other words, comment on structure *and* content, at least in the initial stages. Be positive. See Chart 2 for examples of some teacher comments.

Keep notes on how she is progressing with the reading log. Make sure you regularly make helpful comments on her work. Use interviews to see if she is changing her strategies. Evaluation of the instructional process you have started with Anne needs to be ongoing.

Evaluate the product (Step 4). The effects of the reading log technique may take a few months to show up. Check whether Anne is transferring her reading log style to other classroom tasks. To what extent are her own ideas coming through in class discussion and written work? Have her reports, essays, class test results improved?

Final note

In this article, the teaching ideas which have been suggested for Anne's case

Chart 2
Illustration of the logbook as an instruction approach for a student like Anne who needs to take control of her own learning

Keep in mind that the idea of the reading log is to discourage copying, to encourage students to write their own ideas, and to reorganise the text material so that it is summarised in a more structured way. So, in reading the following examples, note how the log entries try to get away from copying. Also note positive comments by the teacher.

Log entry #1
"Tribes of the Video Generation," *The Bulletin*, October 6, 1987, pp. 48-49.

Student's comments:	*Teacher's comments:*
This article links in with class work we are doing on society in the 1980s.	Good link to class work.
It shows that teenagers should not be lumped into one group. They are really several different groups.	Nice summary of article – short, to the point.
The article compares each of these groups. The comparisons are not complete, though, mainly because some of the groups (e.g. boons and head bangers) are not explained. The overall structure of the information goes like this:	Good analysis of the structure of the article. It definitely tries to compare and contrast the different types of teenagers.

Types of teenagers	What they wear	Musical taste	Life style
Swamprats	Tattered jeans, torn woollie jumpers, leather jackets	Violent femmes, Ramones	Drugs, loud music, alcohol
Trendies	Leg warmers, bright shirts, spiky hair	Similar to Velcroes	Whatever is the latest trend
Velcroes (failed trendies)	Velcroe sneakers, nice jumpers from K Mart	Videos, top 10 hits, Madonna, Eurogliders	Can't be bothered with latest trends
Astronauts	No dress sense	No music sense	Dreamy, obsessed with reincarnation and astrology

are aimed only at the student who can already decode. Students with decoding problems will require other kinds of instruction. The important thing is that the CIPP model can help the teacher to decide on appropriate instruction, as well as evaluate its effects.

This approach can also be explained to different audiences, including parents. It means that the teacher can say something specific about:

(1) the assessed needs of the student,
(2) the reasoning behind the instruction given,
(3) the way in which the student has responded to the instructional programme,
(4) the impact of the instruction on the student's performance.

And, when communicating the results of class tests, the teacher can relate such test data to specific aspects of the student's work, avoiding generalisations and platitudes such as "making good progress," "forging steadily ahead," "inclined to daydream," and so on. In doing so, the work of both the teacher and the student can be illustrated, made concrete, in a way that is not possible when only a grade or a number is given.

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Selected Abstracts from the ERIC Educational Resources Database

ERIC Clearinghouse on
Reading, English, and Communication
Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana

The following abstracts on Evaluating the Progress of the School Reading Program are from the ERIC educational resources database

AN: ED360614
CHN: CS011366
AU: Postlethwaite,-T.-Neville; Ross,-Kenneth-N.
TI: Effective Schools in Reading: Implications for Educational Planners. An Exploratory Study.
CS: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.
PY: 1992
SN: ISBN-92-9121-003-3
NT: 91 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
PG: 91
AB: This booklet presents the results of an exploratory study of educational indicators that differentiate more effective from less effective primary schools. The studies examined in the booklet encompassed 26 national systems of education. The booklet considers the community context of the school; school management; school size, type, and staffing levels; school reading resources; school special reading programs and initiatives; classroom libraries and materials; kinds of reading teachers; teacher activities and teaching methods; and out-of-school activities. Chapters in the booklet are: (1) The Concept of More Effective and Less Effective Schools; (2) A Brief Description of the Reading Literacy Study; (3) The Selection of Indicators for Further Study; (4) Indicators Discriminating between More Effective and Less Effective Schools; (5) A Portrait of a More Effective School. Four appendixes comprising almost half the document include: (1) Reliability Coefficients; (2) A List of Constructs Formed, (3) Procedures for the Identification of More Effective and Less Effective Schools; and (4) More Effective and Less Effective Schools within Countries. (RS)

AN: ED384015
AU: Pressley,-Michael; And-Others
TI: A Survey of Instructional Practices of Primary Teachers Nominated as Effective in Promoting Literacy. Reading Research Report No. 41. Summer 1995.
CS: National Reading Research Center, Athens, GA.; National Reading Research Center, College Park, MD.
PY: 1995
NT: 36 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
AB: Primary teachers who were nominated by their supervisors as effective in educating their students to be readers and writers responded to two questionnaires about their practice. Subjects were 23 kindergarten, 34 first-grade, and 26 second-grade teachers. As expected, there were shifts in reported practices between kindergarten and grade 2, although there was much more similarity than difference in the reports of kindergarten, grade-1, and grade-2 teachers. The teachers claimed commitments to: (1) qualitatively similar instruction for students of all abilities, along with additional support for weak readers; (2) literate classroom environments; (3) modeling and teaching of both lower-order (e.g. decoding) skills and higher-order (e.g. comprehension) processes; (4) extensive and diverse types of reading by students; (5) teaching students to plan, draft, and revise as part of writing; (6) engaging literacy instruction (i.e., instruction motivating literate activities); and (7) monitoring of students' progress in literacy. (Contains 73 references and three tables of data.) (Author/RS)

AN: ED379619
AU: Allen,-Janet
TI: It's Never Too Late: Leading Adolescents to Lifelong Literacy.
PY: 1995
AV: Heinemann, 361 Hanover St., Portsmouth, NH 03801-3912 ($20).
NT: 231 p.; Foreword by Tom Romano.
PR: Document Not Available from EDRS.
AB: Both a "how-to" book and the story of a "year in the life" with a teacher and her at-risk students, this book is a research chronicle that offers proven methods and inspiration for teachers of the most obdurate middle and secondary school students. The book presents case studies, photographs, quotes from educators, surveys, activities, and step-by-step strategies for teaching reading and writing. Chapters in the book are: (1) The View in the Rearview Mirror; (2) New Understanding--Same Challenges; (3) Creating a Literate Environment; (4) Meeting the Students Where They Are; (5) Voices Within and Without; (6) The World Is Our Textbook; (7) Supporting Real Choices; (8) Going around the Edges; (9) "It Was the Best of Times, It Was the Worst of Times..."; (10) "That One Wonder of a Child..."; and (11) Living a Meaningful Life. Appendixes present the research methodology, survey instruments, samples of assessment/evaluation prompts, and a student-generated reading interview survey. Contains 121 references, 110 literary references, and 17 resource references. (RS)

AN: EJ516145
AU: Mariage,-Troy-V.
TI: Why Students Learn: The Nature of Teacher Talk during Reading.
PY: 1995
JN: Learning-Disability-Quarterly; v18 n3 p214-34 Sum 1995
AV: UMI
AB: This study examined patterns of reading-related classroom dialog of three low-gaining and three high-gaining special education teachers. High-gaining teachers spent considerably more time scaffolding student responses, modeling reading strategies, encouraging risk-taking, and transferring control of the reading process to students. Low-gaining teachers spent most of their time evaluating students' responses. (Author/PB)

AN: EJ515933
AU: Kelly,-Patricia-R.
TI: Round Robin Reading: Considering Alternative Instructional Practices That Make More Sense.
PY: 1995
JN: Reading-Horizons; v36 n2 p99-115 1995
AV: UMI
NT: Journal availability: William Paterson College of NJ, Wayne, NJ 07470.

AB: Discusses how preservice teachers in a reading methods course investigated the prevalence of round-robin reading in 72 elementary classrooms. Finds that the majority of the teachers used round-robin reading. Notes that the preservice teachers became acutely aware of what really goes on during round robin reading. Discusses five alternatives to round robin reading. (RS)

AN: EJ515853
AU: Watts,-Susan-M.
TI: Vocabulary Instruction during Reading Lessons in Six Classrooms.
PY: 1995
JN: Journal-of-Reading-Behavior; v27 n3 p399-424 Sep 1995
AV: UMI
AB: Finds that teachers used more than one activity to teach new words but typically did not use activities identified in the research literature as effective; teachers' stated purposes for vocabulary instruction were congruent with the requirements of the basal reading series used; and teachers defined the importance of vocabulary knowledge in terms of the immediate classroom environment. (RS)

AN: EJ514642
AU: Juel,-Connie
TI: The Messenger May Be Wrong, but the Message May Be Right.
PY: 1995
JN: Journal-of-Research-in-Reading; v18 n2 p146-53 Sep 1995
AV: UMI
NT: Special issue: The Contribution of Psychological Research.
AB: Suggests that abandoning controlled vocabulary texts on the assumption that reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game was wrong. Claims that the current emphasis on strategy instruction, scaffolded reading experiences, and the use of writing to foster letter-sounds may provide good outcomes for those teachers and children who dreaded reading instruction in dull texts and even duller workbooks. (RS)

AN: EJ513307
AU: McCarthey,-Sarah-J.
TI: The New Basals: How Are They Different? (National Reading Research Center).
PY: 1995
JN: Reading-Teacher; v49 n1 p72-75 Sep 1995
AV: UMI
AB: Finds that the new basals are different from the old basals, that students' rating and rankings of the old and new basals are consistent with the researchers', and that teachers varied in the ways that they used basal materials and in their views of the construction of knowledge. (SR)

AN: EJ511131
AU: Adams,-Marilyn-J.; Bruck,-Maggie
TI: Resolving the "Great Debate."
PY: 1995
JN: American-Educator; v19 n2 p7,10-20 Sum 1995
AV: UMI
AB: Examines the research on the central role of decoding in reading, concluding that the position that whole language proponents take in equating learning to read with learning to talk and their reduction of decoding to an incidental place in the curriculum are wrong. The authors argue for a balanced approach to reading instruction. (GR)

AN: ED382936
AU: Radencich,-Marguerite-C.; McKay,-Lyn-J.
TI: Flexible Grouping for Literacy in the Elementary Grades.
PY: 1995
AV: Allyn & Bacon, P.O. Box 11071, Des Moines, IA 50336-1071 (paperback: ISBN-0-205-16226-6, $29.95 plus shipping and handling; clothbound: ISBN-0-205-17497-3, $39.95 plus shipping and handling).
NT: 193 p.
PR: Document Not Available from EDRS.
AB: Presenting an in-depth look at alternatives to ability grouping in elementary school reading and language arts programs, this book presents eight essays that offer a variety of practical suggestions and resources for educators interested in moving to or enhancing their use of flexible grouping for reading instruction. The book describes programs that have been successfully implemented, and provides guidelines for linking assessment to instruction. After a foreword by John J. Pikulski, essays in the book are: (1) "What Research Says about Grouping in the Past and Present and What It Suggests about the Future" (Rebecca Barr); (2) "Keeping Flexible Groups Flexible: Grouping Options" (Marguerite C. Radencich and others); (3) "Implementing Flexible Grouping with a Common Reading Selection" (Marguerite C. Radencich and others); (4) "Literature Circles for the Teaching of Literature-Based Reading" (Wendy C. Kasten); (5) "Preparing for and Reacting to Change in Grouping Arrangements" (Marguerite C. Radencich and Lyn J. McKay); (6) "Connecting Assessment and Instruction in the Flexibly-Grouped Classroom" (Jeanne R. Paratore); (7) "At-Risk Children Can Learn to Read and Write" (Patricia M. Cunningham); and (8) "Multiple Literacy Contexts in Classrooms: Frameworks, Functions, and Forecasts" (Elfrieda H. Hiebert). A 15-item glossary of strategies is attached. (RS)

AN: EJ496029
AU: Gleason,-Mary-M.
TI: Using Direct Instruction to Integrate Reading and Writing for Students with Learning Disabilities.
PY: 1995
JN: Reading-and-Writing-Quarterly:-Overcoming-Learning-Difficulties; v11 n1 p91-108 Jan-Mar 1995
NT: Mini-Theme: Direct Instruction Reading.
AB: Reviews research on effective strategies for teaching reading comprehension; written composition of narrative and expository text; and strategies for integrating reading and writing. Provides a set of teaching guidelines after each research review. Argues for teaching reading and writing as connected processes that have similar structures. (RS)

AN: EJ496028
AU: Griffin,-Cynthia-Carlson; Tulbert,-Beth-Lorene
TI: The Effect of Graphic Organizers on Students' Comprehension and Recall of Expository Text: A Review of the Research and Implications for Practice.
PY: 1995
JN: Reading-and-Writing-Quarterly:-Overcoming-Learning-Difficulties; v11 n1 p73-89 Jan-Mar 1995
NT: Mini-Theme: Direct Instruction Reading.

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AB: Reviews the use of graphic organizers as a means to assist students in the complex act of making sense of content-area text. Explores theoretical and historical foundations of the graphic organizer and reviews current research. Derives implications for the classroom teacher and future research. (RS)

AN: EJ496027
AU: Dimino,-Joseph-A.; And-Others
TI: Synthesis of the Research on Story Grammar as a Means to Increase Comprehension.
PY: 1995
JN: Reading-and-Writing-Quarterly:-Overcoming-Learning-Difficulties; v11 n1 p53-72 Jan-Mar 1995
NT: Mini-Theme: Direct Instruction Reading.
AB: Reviews research on the effectiveness of story grammar in promoting the comprehension of narrative text in students with learning disabilities and at-risk students. Offers instructional recommendations for successful implementation of this strategy. (RS)

AN: EJ494576
AU: Dowhower,-Sarah-L.
TI: Repeated Reading Revisited: Research into Practice.
PY: 1994
JN: Reading-and-Writing-Quarterly:-Overcoming-Learning-Difficulties; v10 n4 p343-58 Oct-Dec 1994
NT: Mini-Theme: Individual Differences in Reading and Writing.
AB: Summarizes findings about repeated reading since the 1970s and details the most recent findings. Argues that, because of strong evidence of the effectiveness of repeated reading, the many facets of this procedure should be integrated into the fabric of daily literacy instruction. Offers specific suggestions for applications including applications geared to children with reading problems. (SR)

AN: ED376451
AU: Stahl,-Steven-A.; And-Others
TI: Six Teachers in Their Classrooms: A Closer Look at Beginning Reading Instruction. Technical Report No. 606.
CS: Center for the Study of Reading, Urbana, IL.
PY: 1994
NT: 30 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
AB: A study addressed the problem of making accurate descriptions of how teachers in first-grade classrooms help their students learn to read and write. It also related the approaches to reading instruction that teachers use to their students' views of reading and their achievement at the end of first grade. For the study, information was gathered from classroom observations, teacher interviews, discussions with students, and assessments of their progress. Findings showed that many of the differences among first-grade classrooms within any type of approach to reading instruction arise from differences in implementation. Observations and discussions confirmed the belief that most teachers of beginning reading are eclectics, engaging their students in activities that have been found to be effective, regardless of the program, approach, or method they profess to be using. In general, teachers pull from the repertoire of activities that come from their own experience and convictions, and fashion programs that vary, according to the needs of the children in their classrooms and what their own experiences tell them will work. They are influenced by theory, but adapt it to their own ways of working with students. (Contains 27 references, 1 table, and 2 figures containing several tables of data). (Author/SR)

AN: EJ487822
AU: Barnett,-Jerrold-E.; Irwin,-Lydia
TI: The Effects of Classroom Activities on Elementary Students' Reading Attitudes.
PY: 1994
JN: Reading-Improvement; v31 n2 p113-21 Sum 1994
AV: UMI
AB: Finds an overall drop in reading attitudes across the upper elementary school years in three of the four schools examined. Reveals few significant relationships between reading attitudes and teacher-reported enrichment activities. Notes that activities that fit with a traditional, direct instruction approach to teaching reading correlated negatively with reading attitudes. (RS)

AN: EJ487745
AU: Bush,-Harold-K., Jr.
TI: **Reader Response Theory: Reading, Writing, and Literature Practices in Classrooms.**
PY: 1994
JN: Reading-Research-and-Instruction; v33 n4 p326-30 Sum 1994
AV: UMI
NT: A Themed Issue on Assessment and Intervention in Reading/Literacy Education: Research and Practice.
AB: Presents an annotated bibliography of 12 research articles, all related to reader response theory and its applications to the English classroom. (HB)

AN: EJ487741
AU: Moje,-Elizabeth-B.; And-Others
TI: Portfolios in a High School Classroom: Challenges to Change.
PY: 1994
JN: Reading-Research-and-Instruction; v33 n4 p275-92 Sum 1994
AV: UMI
NT: A Themed Issue on Assessment and Intervention in Reading/Literacy Education: Research and Practice.
AB: Presents findings of a collaborative study that examined a teacher's implementation of portfolio instruction and assessment in a high school French class. Gives perspectives of the teacher and students involved, and discusses implications of these perspectives. (HB)

AN: EJ484799
AU: Ehlinger,-Jeanne; Pritchard,-Robert
TI: Using Think Alongs in Secondary Content Areas.
PY: 1994
JN: Reading-Research-and-Instruction; v33 n3 p187-206 Spr 1994
AV: UMI
AB: Defines the method of "think alongs," which are representations of a reader's process of constructing meaning. Illustrates how think along methods of reading instruction might be used in secondary science, math, or social studies classrooms by focusing on critical learning issues in each area. (HB)

AN: EJ483267
AU: Dagostino,-Lorraine; Carifio,-James
TI: Establishing the Logical Validity of Instructional Activities for Teaching Reading Evaluatively.
PY: 1994
JN: Reading-Improvement; v31 n1 p14-22 Spr 1994
AV: UMI
AB: Establishes the logical validity of instructional activities for teaching reading evaluatively. Supports the view that the 20 characteristics of literate students who read evaluatively were translated into valid instructional activities by experienced classroom teachers. (HB)

AN: EJ470465
AU: Truax,-Roberta-R.; Kretschmer,-Richard-R., Jr.
TI: Finding New Voices in the Process of Meeting the Needs of All Children (Focus on Research).
PY: 1993
JN: Language-Arts; v70 n7 p592-601 Nov 1993
AV: UMI
NT: Themed Issue: Language Arts for "Special Populations."
AB: Discusses the contrast between traditional approaches to language arts instruction for special needs children and process-centered, communication-based approaches. Provides examples of research on process-centered, communication-based instruction for special needs children. Addresses implications suggested by this research. (RS)

AN: EJ449998
AU: Conners,-Frances-A.
TI: Reading Instruction for Students with Moderate Mental Retardation: Review and Analysis of Research.
PY: 1992
JN: American-Journal-on-Mental-Retardation; v96 n6 p577-97 May 1992
AV: UMI
AB: Analysis of research on reading instruction for children with moderate mental retardation indicated that word analysis instruction is a feasible option; word analysis is the most effective method of oral reading error correction; and the strongest sight-word instruction methods include those that use picture integration, constant delay, and the Edmark errorless discrimination method. (Author/JDD)

AN: EJ448390
AU: Hughes,-Julie-A.; Wedman,-Judy-M.
TI: An Examination of Elementary Teachers' Espoused Theories and Reading Instruction Practices.
PY: 1992
JN: Reading-Improvement; v29 n2 p94-100 Sum 1992
AV: UMI
AB: Examines teaching theories and classroom practices of elementary teachers regarding reading instruction. Finds that most held process theories about teaching, made untested assumptions to diagnose problematic classroom situations, and acted by retreating. (SR)

AN: EJ445714
AU: Bean,-Rita-M.; And-Others
TI: Inclass or Pullout: Effects of Setting on the Remedial Reading Program.
PY: 1991
JN: Journal-of-Reading-Behavior; v23 n4 p445-64 1991
AV: UMI
AB: Describes the remedial reading instruction received by students in in-class or pull-out programs with respect to the instructional behaviors of teachers, the nature of lessons, and the reading behaviors of students. Finds overall differences between what students experienced in each setting, although students received a great deal of skill-related instruction in both settings. (SR)

AN: EJ441053
AU: Sensenbaugh,-Roger
TI: Reading Teachers and Their Students (ERIC/RCS).
PY: 1992
JN: Reading-Research-and-Instruction; v31 n2 p98-101 Win 1992
AV: UMI
AB: Presents annotations of nine articles from the ERIC database that discuss the pedagogical relationship between reading teachers and their students. Includes articles that deal with whole-language instruction, student motivation, instructional grouping, questioning techniques, and the characteristics of effective teachers. (PRA)

AN: EJ437304
AU: Purcell-Gates,-Victoria; Dahl,-Karin-L.
TI: Low-SES Children's Success and Failure at Early Literacy Learning in Skills-Based Classrooms.
PY: 1991
JN: Journal-of-Reading-Behavior; v23 n1 p1-34 1991
AV: UMI
AB: Examines 35 low-SES, urban children's ways of interpreting traditional skills-based literacy instruction in kindergarten and first grade. Reveals four patterns of success/nonsuccess in literacy development within the classroom context. (MG)

AN: EJ432445
AU: Shapiro,-Jon; White,-William
TI: Reading Attitudes and Perceptions in Traditional and Nontraditional Reading Programs.
PY: 1991
JN: Reading-Research-and-Instruction; v30 n4 p52-66 Sum 1991
AV: UMI
AB: Examines the impact of the traditional form of reading instruction on the reading attitudes and perceptions of the reading process of 467 elementary school children. Compares children taught traditionally and children who received no formal reading instruction. Finds that reading attitudes and perceptions of the reading process were affected by the type of instruction. (MG)

AN: ED350849
AU: Field,-Mary-Lee
TI: Reading Research: A Guide to Classroom Practices and Teaching Tools.
PY: 1992
NT: 17 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (26th, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada, March 3-7, 1992).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

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AB: Research on six major issues in reading is organized into charts and a bibliography. For each of the six areas (schema theory, reading strategies and processes, comprehension studies, culture and reading, methods for teaching reading, cognitive/metacognitive issues), relevant research is summarized in a chart. Each chart contains two sections, one describing the classroom practices supported by the research and one listing specific tools, ideas, techniques, definitions, or teaching aids suggested in the literature. Each bibliographic item cited in the summary is annotated in the accompanying bibliography. Key terms in reading research are defined in an introductory section, and a 26-item non-annotated bibliography is appended. (MSE)

AN: ED337761
AU: Robinson,-Richard-D.
TI: Teacher Effectiveness and Reading Instruction.
CS: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Bloomington, IN.
PY: 1991
AV: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Indiana University, 2805 E. 10th St., Suite 150, Bloomington, IN 47408-2698 ($12.95 plus $3.00 postage and handling).
NT: 106 p.; Published in cooperation with EDINFO Press.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
AB: Recognizing that classrooms are complex settings in which effective teaching cannot be the end result of merely following a list of rules and regulations, this monograph provides practicing reading teachers with appropriate information based on current teacher-effectiveness research so that they can be informed by the best of current thinking to make the most intelligent and useful decisions about their classroom reading programs. Chapters in the monograph are: (1) "The Effective Reading Teacher"; (2) "Effective Classroom Management for Reading"; (3) "Teachers' Expectations"; (4) "Establishing an Effective Environment for Reading"; (5) "Effective Reading Development: The Role of the Home"; (6) "Effective Reading Instruction and the Special Learner"; and (7) "Effective Reading Teachers: They DO Make a Difference." Each chapter concludes with a section entitled "You Become Involved" in which statements or questions are posed to help teachers apply the information to their own situation. Seventeen notes are included; a 97-item annotated bibliography of recent research in the ERIC database on teacher effectiveness is attached. (RS)

AN: EJ381816
AU: Nicholson,-Tom
TI: Using the CIPP Model to Evaluate Reading Instruction.
PY: 1989
JN: Journal-of-Reading; v32 n4 p312-18 Jan 1989
AV: UMI
AB: Presents an approach to evaluation of reading instruction called CIPP (context, input, process, product), including: methods for discovering the needs of each student, getting input from students and colleagues concerning possible action, implementing evaluation in the process of instruction, and then carrying out an evaluation of the final product. (RS)

AN: EJ370914
AU: Silvern,-Steven-B., Ed.; And-Others
TI: Reviews of Research. Effective Schools Research and Excellence in Reading: A Rationale for Children's Literature in the Curriculum.
PY: 1988
JN: Childhood-Education; v64 n4 p235-36,38,40-1 Apr 1988
AV: UMI
AB: Examines the findings of effective schools research and reading research that support the view that (1) more time should be devoted to reading children's literature and (2) more than basal materials is necessary for effective instruction. Shows how teaching children's literature can improve teacher effectiveness. (SKC)

AN: EJ342441
AU: Johns,-Jerry
TI: Ingredients for a Sound Reading Program.
PY: 1986
JN: Australian-Journal-of-Reading; v9 n1 p3-10 Mar 1986
AB: Argues that sound reading programs require teachers to act on their understanding that reading is a meaning making process. Offers six interrelated principles about reading. (FL)

AN: EJ306491
AU: Shannon,-Albert-J.
TI: Monitoring Reading Instruction in the Content Areas.
PY: 1984
JN: Journal-of-Reading; v28 n2 p128-34 Nov 1984
AV: UMI
AB: Proposes an instrument that should help teachers and administrators monitor instructional reading practices and abilities in the content area classroom. (HOD)

AN: EJ294727
AU: Guzzetti,-Barbara-J.; Marzano,-Robert-J.
TI: Correlates of Effective Reading Instruction.
PY: 1984
JN: Reading-Teacher; v37 n8 p754-58 Apr 1984
AV: UMI
AB: Notes that school effectiveness research has identified particular process and content characteristics associated with gains in reading achievement. Examines the research and the application of research findings. (FL)

AN: ED302838
AU: Wendler,-David; And-Others
TI: Comprehension Instruction of Award Winning Teachers, Masters Degree Teachers and Non-Masters Degree Teachers.
PY: 1988
NT: 59 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference (38th, Tucson, AZ, November 29-December 3, 1988).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
AB: A study examined time spent on comprehension instruction by award winning, masters degree, and non-masters degree teachers. Observations of reading lessons were made under two conditions; not-cued and cued to teach "ideal" comprehension instruction lessons. Subjects were 36 public school third-, fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade teachers teaching in 20 different

schools located in 12 different public school districts of a midwestern state. Results were analyzed using a one between, one within analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor with respect to percentage of time spent on prereading activities, comprehension instruction, and all comprehension activities. Results showed there were no significant differences among the award winning, masters degree, and non-masters degree teachers in the percentage of time spent on pre-reading activities or on comprehension instruction. Award winning teachers did allocate significantly more time than non-masters degree teachers to making assignments and to giving individual help with those assignments. When told that comprehension instruction was the purpose of observations, teachers did not increase the percentage of time for prereading activities or comprehension instruction. Instead they significantly increased the percentage of time spent asking assessment questions, listening to students' answers, and giving corrective feedback. (Eight tables of data, 2 appendixes of categories and definitions of Reading Activities and Teacher Behaviors, and 38 references are attached.) (Author/RAE)

AN: ED267386
AU: Merritt,-John-E.
TI: **Reading and Information Skills--A Functional Approach.**
PY: 1985
NT: 15 p.; Paper presented at the SEAMEO Regional Language Seminar "Language across the Curriculum" (Singapore, April 22-26, 1985).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
AB: The study of reading in restricted contexts ultimately short changes children. The continuous proliferation of research data results in teacher training courses that are overloaded with marginally relevant material. A vast number of "teachable skills" are isolated, and well-meaning publishers produce sophisticated but unnecessary materials; moreover, teachers and students waste valuable curriculum time on unnecessary or counter-productive activities. Evidence for these problems can be seen in international comparisons of attainment in countries that spend their resources in different ways, in studies comparing the efficacy of different teaching strategies, in the comparison of reading in school and the reading needed in everyday life, and in studies of the actual effects of efforts in schools in relation to the standards needed for literate survival. Standardized tests of reading based on materials used in teaching cannot indicate whether teachers' efforts are related to reality or anything about functional reading. Only when practical links between the work of the school and the everyday life of the community are forged, will an adequate curriculum for reading development be provided. (EL)

AN: ED266424
AU: Linn,-Robert-L.; Meyer,-Linda-A.
TI: **Kindergarten Instruction and Early Reading Achievement. Technical Report No. L-4.**
CS: Bolt, Beranek and Newman, Inc., Cambridge, Mass.; Illinois Univ., Urbana. Center for the Study of Reading.
PY: 1985
NT: 27 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference (34th, St. Petersburg, FL, November 28-December 1, 1984). Figure 3 contains small print.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
AB: The relationship of the amount of classroom time devoted to reading instruction, the number of reading related activities, and teacher instruction feedback to reading achievement at the end of kindergarten was investigated for a sample of approximately 300 children in 14 kindergarten classrooms at three schools. Based on nine rounds of full-day observations, it was found that there are great between- and within-class differences in the amount and type of reading instruction received by the kindergarten children. These differences were strongly related to student decoding ability in the spring after controlling for fall achievement. Future analyses of the continuing longitudinal follow-up of these children will investigate the degree to which these differences in early reading achievement are reflected in later reading comprehension differences. (Tables of findings are included.) (Author/EL)

AN: ED265504
AU: Hoffman,-James-V., Ed.
TI: **Effective Teaching of Reading: Research and Practice.**
CS: International Reading Association, Newark, Del.
PY: 1986
AV: International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Rd., PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139 (Book No. 739, $11.00 member, $16.50 nonmember).
NT: 315 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC13 Plus Postage.
AB: Distilling and interpreting past and current research on the effective teaching of reading is the focus of this volume. The titles and authors are as follows: "Research in Effective Teaching: An Overview of Its Development" (William H. Rupley, Beth S. Wise, and John W. Logan); "Process-Product Research on Effective Teaching: A Primer for a Paradigm" (James V. Hoffman); "Principles for Conducting First Grade Reading Group Instruction" (Jere Brophy); "Effective Use of Time in Secondary Reading Programs" (Jane A. Stallings); "Case Study of a Changing Reading Program and the Role of Teacher Effectiveness Research" (Mark W. F. Condon and Marilyn B. Kapel); "Effective Use of Instructional Time: The Cupertino Project" (Martha Rapp Haggard and Jennifer Reese Better); "Changing Teacher Practice: A Research Based School Improvement Study (Gary A. Griffin and Susan Barnes); "Instructional Decision Making and Reading Teacher Effectiveness" (Gerald G. Duffy and Deborah L. Ball); "Studying Qualitative Dimensions of Instructional Effectiveness" (Laura R. Roehler and Gerald G. Duffy); "Project READ: An Inservice Model for Training Classroom Teachers in Effective Reading Instruction" (Robert Calfee and Marcia K. Henry); "The Madeline Hunter Model of Teacher Effectiveness" (Renee Weisberg); "Policy Constraints and Effective Compensatory Reading Instruction: A Review" (Richard L. Allington); and "What We Know and What We Need to Learn About Reading Instruction" (Rebecca Barr). (EL)

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AN: ED255866
AU: Baumann,-James-F.
TI: **The Systematic, Intensive Instruction of Reading Comprehension Skills.**
PY: 1984
NT: 13 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference (34th, St. Petersburg, FL, November 28-December 1, 1984).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
AB: In direct instruction, the teacher, in a face-to-face, reasonably formal manner, tells, shows, models, demonstrates, and teaches the skill to be learned. Therefore, it is the teacher behavior aspect of classroom instruction that underpins the instructional strategy for teaching main ideas. Much has been learned about teacher behaviors that discriminate successful teachers from less successful teachers. Most of the teacher behaviors described in teacher effectiveness research cluster under the rubric "direct instruction." In a global sense, when direct instruction occurs, enough time is allocated to reading instruction, teachers accept responsibility for student achievement, and they expect that their students will learn. One direct instruction strategy for teaching students various reading comprehension skills is a five-step approach documented by the work and research of J. F. Baumann. The five steps consist of introduction, example, direct instruction, teacher directed application, and independent practice. That is, the teacher tells the students what the lesson will be about, the teacher provides an example; the teacher actually teaches the lesson; and then the teacher gradually releases responsibility for learning to the students through guided application exercises and by providing independent practice. (HOD)

AN: ED250653
AU: Engelmann,-Siegfried; Meyer,-Linda-A.
TI: **Reading Comprehension Instruction in Grades 4, 5, and 6: Program Characteristics; Teacher Perceptions; Teacher Behaviors; and Student Performance.**
CS: Engelmann-Becker Corp., Eugene, OR.
PY: 1984
NT: 35 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (68th, New Orleans, LA, April 23-27, 1984). For a related document, see CS 007 722.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
AB: A three-part study was conducted to present an indepth look at reading comprehension instruction in the middle grades. In the first part of the study, four basal series for grades 4, 5, and 6, were analyzed for clarity of communication, adequacy of skill practice provided, and a number of other comprehension related dimensions. In the second part, 17 teachers were videotaped as they taught two comprehension topic areas and were interviewed to get their perceptions of the texts they used and of their students' mastery of the material taught. These results were compared with those obtained from a larger sample of teachers who completed questionnaires. The third part of the study examined student achievement for the observed teachers on criterion-referenced tests designed to assess what was taught. Overall results indicated that (1) the text presentations were inadequate in terms of their instructional design features, (2) the teachers did not improve upon the texts, (3) teacher perceptions of how well they taught and how much their students learned were inaccurate, and (4) only 55% of the students learned 50% of the comprehension skills presented. (FL)

AN: ED219728
AU: Dorr-Bremme,-Donald-W.
TI: **Higher Reading Achievement in Los Angeles Title I Elementary Schools: An Exploratory Study of Underlying Factors.**
CS: California Univ., Los Angeles. Center for the Study of Evaluation.; Los Angeles Unified School District, Calif. Research and Evaluation Branch.
PY: 1981
AV: Center for the Study of Evaluation, 145 Moore Hall, University of California, Graduate School of Education, Los Angeles, CA 90024 ($5.00).
NT: 111 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
AB: An exploratory study was carried out in four Los Angeles Title I elementary schools to determine what accounted for the comparatively high reading scores made by these schools' students on the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills; determine whether the schools were engaged in demonstrably effective educational practices that other Title I and similar schools could employ; and determine what those practices were and how they functioned to make a difference in students' reading. Using the framework of ethnographic studies, staff members and students were observed and listened to in a variety of settings: classrooms, labs and offices, the playground and the hallways, faculty meetings, libraries, and lounges. In particular, 24 different classrooms were observed for a total of 10-12 school days. Analysis was aimed at identifying activities, environmental circumstances, beliefs and attitudes, materials, and organizational arrangements common to the four schools and functionally related to teaching/learning and/or test-taking in reading. Findings revealed seven conditions to be common to the four schools: (1) close attention to a continuum of reading skills, joined with a marked emphasis on reading for comprehension, (2) specialization of instruction in reading, (3) "strong" experienced teachers with high standards and expectations for student performance, (4) stability of the reading program and key staff members, (5) an emphasis on writing, (6) teacher participation in decision making, and (7) a high degree of both rapport and mutual respect among staff members. (HOD)

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